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THE NECESSITY FOR CATHOLIC HIGH SCHOOLS

Very recently a civic body charged with the administration of a charitable fund wrote to the Catholic authorities in a certain city asking in all simplicity why Catholic schools were insisted upon. They stated that in administering their fund they were frequently embarrassed by the insistence of Catholic parents in keeping their children in parochial schools. And with great naivete they asked why the children would not be sent to the public schools and be taught their religion in a Sunday school.

The ladies and gentlemen asking the question are educated, intelligent people; they have been living for years in a large community where there are scores of parish schools with tens of thousands of pupils; the work of the aforesaid committee brings them daily in contact with Catholic families in a most intimate way; hundreds of times the reasons for Catholic schools have been thundered from pulpits, proclaimed from platforms, and discussed in Catholic newspapers, magazines and books. One would have thought that the reasons had been driven home *ad nauseam* and that it would be platitudinous to even mention them to such a body. And yet in all sincerity they asked the question and the old road had to be traveled once more.

This incident, though disconcerting, is also illuminating. Perhaps we frequently take too much for granted in the discussion of Catholic principles. And so, if in recounting why Catholic High Schools are necessary we restate trite truths, let experiences like the above plead our cause.

GROWTH OF HIGH-SCHOOL MOVEMENT

Looking back over the history of Catholic education in this country, it is very evident that the high school idea did not

take root in the Catholic body until long after it had become a fixed institution in the public-school systems. At least as a parochial or a diocesan work, it was scarcely heard of thirty or forty years ago. The private academies and the Catholic colleges, it is true, were engaged in high-school work much earlier. But Catholic high-school education for the masses can be said to have had its inception less than two generations ago. Indeed the idea has not had a smooth road to travel. Not only in the past, but even very recently there were many who contended that the parishes should not attempt secondary school work. It is not long since we have heard it urged that secondary education is not the work of the community, that high-school training should be restricted to those whose parents were able and willing to pay for it, and that if the Church had by dint of sacrifice and effort provided schools for elementary Catholic training, it had done its full duty to the rising generation.

In vain has the attention of these objectors been called to the un-American spirit of this contention. In vain has it been urged that in this land of equal opportunity it would be foreign to our spirit to make larger education the special privilege of the well-to-do. In vain was it pointed out that few indeed of the educated class have paid or are paying for their education and that were it not for state aid, legacies and bequests (to say nothing of the large part contributed by self-denying religious), educational institutions could not exist. Certainly the tuition paid by the vast majority of those who had the name of paying for their education would never have been sufficient to finance the institutions where they received their secondary or collegiate training.

Happily, however, changed conditions have silenced most of the erstwhile opponents of the high-school idea. Compulsory education laws have so changed the situation that it were idle to argue against providing educational opportunities beyond the grade school. Since most of the states have made attendance at school, either on full time or on part time compulsory up to the completion of the sixteenth year, theorizing on the subject has gone by the board. It is no longer a question of whether or not children should be given a high-

school education, but rather a question of where they should receive it.

Concomitantly with the new legal status of the question has come a very general change of public opinion on the matter. Whether the laws were enacted because of the growth of this public sentiment or whether, vice versa, the new opinion followed the enactment of the laws, we shall not discuss. But the fact is that the change is here and here to stay.

Most of us can remember the not far distant day when the average parent thought he had given his son and daughter a substantial education and endowed them with a sufficient preparation for life when he gave them a grammar-school training. Today the young man or woman who has not had a high-school course can lay no claim to being educated, and parents, many of whom did not enjoy the advantages of a secondary school training, are willing to make every sacrifice to confer this boon upon their children. Many avenues of advancement which a few years ago were open to the boy or girl, who could read and write and figure with tolerable speed and accuracy, are now closed to all except those able to show credits for a high-school course. Frequently this condition is announced as a *sine qua non*.

Another angle from which we may view the situation is that of official statistics. Seven years ago the Commissioner of Education pointed out that high-school enrollment throughout the United States had increased 100 per cent in fourteen years and that certain sections of the country showed an increase of 200 per cent during the same period. Rapid as is this growth, we are told (accurate figures are not available) that since the World War the rate of increase is even higher. If this rate of development continues, and the indications are that it will, undoubtedly high-school education will be as widespread in the next generation as elementary training was in the days when we went to school.

SOME DIFFICULTIES AND DANGERS

In these changed conditions what is to be the policy of the Church? Can she afford to leave the secondary education of her children to non-Catholic agencies or must she gird her loins for a new struggle and enter the lists to guard her

children on their journey through labyrinths of secondary training?

The difficulties cannot be ignored. The cost of high-school education is usually two or three times as high as elementary costs. The equipment is more expensive than the primary. Teachers require longer and special training. And additional buildings must be found. But yet with all these difficulties we cannot afford to balk at the task. The interests at stake are too great. Unless we consistently follow out our principles, our whole school system falls.

It is ingeniously optimistic to assert that, early impressions being most lasting, our children having been grounded in doctrine and religious practice during the eight years of their elementary course will prove staunch Catholics and will be able to meet and conquer all the untoward influences and arguments that will confront them during the high-school period in an un-Catholic even though not an anti-Catholic atmosphere.

To say nothing of the vagaries of sex hygiene teaching that is being advocated for high schools now-a-days, nor of the theories of evolution which the average high-school teacher exploits as proven facts, there are numerous points of contact in the history and the science courses where doctrines inimical to the Church and subversive of the faith can be and frequently are taught. A Catholic teacher and a Catholic text would therefore seem for these reasons to be even more imperative in the high school than in the elementary school. Early childhood may indeed be the time of deep impressions, but adolescence is the period of character formation. This is the time when the growing boy and girl begin to think for themselves, to adopt the principles that are to regulate the rest of their lives and to set up ideals for imitation. It is also the time of strong temptation, and unless they are hedged about with all the helps of religion, and encouraged and edified by the example and precept of religious minded men and women, there is a grave danger that all the care that has been expended during the earlier years shall be brought to naught.

An indirect attack also must be anticipated. Youth is a time of hero worship. An influence often imperceptible to

the youth himself, but none the less real and strong, is exercised by the instructors with whom he comes in contact. With their education, their broader experiences, often with their special talents, their wit, their ready answer to any and all questions, they become the heroes of the young disciple and he unconsciously adopts their way of thinking and acting. Usually these paragons of perfection that the pupil has discovered are college men and women, products of universities, whose products, according to well-founded report, are made up largely of pagans and scoffers at religion. It will not be necessary for them to mention their beliefs or lack of belief. The very fact that the impressionable pupil knows that these, in his eyes, most intelligent and educated instructors, practice no religion at all cannot help but plant in his mind at least a suspicion that high intellectuality is not compatible with religion. Perhaps, owing to home or other influence, he does not allow the suspicion to grow into a fixed judgment, nor to move him to change his religious practices; but, of a surety, there must result a chilling of his fervor and a loss of enthusiastic appreciation of his faith.

These are the positive drawbacks to be met in a non-Catholic high school. What of the negative aspect of the case?

CATHOLIC ESSENTIALS LACKING

The staunchest proponent of the secular high school would hesitate to claim for that institution any of the features that are considered essential and distinctive in the Catholic plan of education. Indeed it would be unfair to expect them in a school that makes no pretense to train the religious faculties of the student. And yet, we as Catholics, if we are to be at all consistent, must consider these features as second to none in importance in education whether it be primary, secondary or college. For they are the *raison d'être* of our school system.

The fundamental purpose of Catholic education is to put into operation a practical plan to instill into the minds of our children, *pari pasu* with secular training, the principles, ideals, doctrines and practices of our holy religion. The character and life of the rising generation is to be formed and dominated by the teachings and example of Christ. To this

end all the expedients that the experience of ages has shown to be effective are marshaled. A religious atmosphere is created in the schoolroom. The day's work begins with prayer—the children are reminded of the presence of God. Their studies are for God—the end and object of all living. The crucifix, the religious pictures, the habit of the teacher, all speak of Christ and His Saints. As the Jews of old recounted to their children the deeds and sayings of the prophets and of the champions of Israel's wars; as the Greeks and Romans held up as models for youthful imitation the heroes of mythology, so the Christian teacher introduces as models for imitation the heroes of the Church, the saints of God and their Divine Leader.

Hymns, legends from the lives of the saints, recitations of religious poems and selected prose punctuate the program of the day to keep Christian ideals and spiritual motives ever present. Step by step the little ones are made acquainted with the doctrines of the Divine Master as their unfolding intellectual powers enable them to grasp their meaning. Other studies are to be constantly correlated with religious principles. Gradually also they are furnished with arguments that will enable them to give a reason for the faith that is in them.

For these instructions and this training progress with the growth and progress of the pupil and changes in presentation are made to suit the age of the student. Controverted doctrines are defended in the advanced classes in order that the specious arguments they will hear later on may not deceive them. They are to have an intelligent understanding of their faith, to appreciate its beauty and explain and defend it to others.

Character training is to be founded on these Christian truths and to develop as a natural consequence of their realization. All the natural virtues, honesty, charity, purity, devotion to duty, self-restraint are insisted upon, not from any weak motive of self-complacency or expediency, but from the only lasting and sufficient reason—to please God under Whose all-seeing eye we are at all times and Who will reward the good and punish the wicked.

The supernatural virtues of faith, hope and charity readily

take root in soil such as this, and spiritualize the lives of these growing followers of Christ. Catholic training embraces not only the knowledge of Christian doctrines and principles, but the practice of religious observances. Regular and devout attendance at mass with careful directions how to behave and how to join in that august act; frequent reception of the sacraments, together with solid instruction as to the requisites and the manner of receiving them well; visits to the Blessed Sacrament; membership in sodalities; joining in processions and other devotions of the Church, all are insisted upon as part of the practical training in religion. For the external observances of religion are necessary not only as visible bonds of union with the Church but principally as means of grace. And here is the ultimate aim of all Christian training—to sanctify the lives of the growing generation. We believe that the Mass, the Sacraments, and the sacramentals bring into the soul the gifts and graces of God, enabling it to overcome temptation, beautifying it and establishing it in every virtue. And if character formation is the great desideratum in educating, surely these practices of religion, spiritualizing, purifying and ennobling as they are, must be the most potent factors in true education.

Add to these elements the edification that comes from close association with men and women whose lives are dominated by supernatural motives and who are living exemplars of Christian principles, and we have the sum total of the influences that are distinctive of Catholic education as such.

All these factors—Catholic atmosphere, religious instruction, Christian idealism, practices of devotion, and religious edification—the very heart and soul of the training every Christian youth should receive—are lacking in a high-school course given in a non-Catholic school. This is the great defect and the ever present objection to having our boys and girls attend secular high schools.

Consistency demands that religious training go hand in hand with secular education, not only in the grades but also in the high school. If our principles are sound they apply equally to every period of school life from the kindergarten to university. And we can no more balk at the expense or

difficulty in providing secondary education, now that it has become so general, than our forefathers in their poverty did in establishing primary schools.

Ample will the results repay the effort. The high-school period will prove the harvest time of the arduous work done in the grades. Then will the results of the careful training given show in the young men and women whose lives are motived by sound and intelligent Catholicity. Contact with their priests and the religious teachers for two or four years additional, together with attendance at the sacraments and the practice of the devotions connected with every Catholic school should not only protect our boys and girls during this critical period of their lives, but should also crown the work previously done and send them forth thoroughly trained in their religion and with an education thoroughly sound because it is truly Catholic.

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PRESENT DEVELOPMENTS AND TENDENCIES IN THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL¹

The far-reaching changes that are taking place in the American system of education are frequently ascribed to the whims and fancies of professional pedagogues. It is the fashion with a great number of people, within the schools as well as without, to label every attempted reform "fad," and then sit back and smugly recount the educational glories of the past. Their dictum is, "Whatever was, is right," and there is something naive in the manner in which they insinuate that they personally represent about the best that any system of education could ever hope to accomplish.

Such generalizations are too easy, particularly when the blessed gift of forgetting has served to obliterate discomfiting realities. It might prove very enlightening, could someone develop the technique, to measure the results of the teaching of the past. Starch mentions an interesting comparison made between the spelling ability of children of the same age and grade, in the same school, in 1846 and in 1906.² Twenty words given in a spelling test to ninth-grade children, sixty years before, were given to ninth graders in 1906. The latter made a class average of 51.2 per cent against 40.6 per cent, the average of the former. The schools of the past have turned out some very great men; but they have turned out more than a few, who are not so very great.

But even granting all to the education of bygone days that its champions claim for it, the case against the modern school remains to be proven. For, after all, the past is not the present, and the school of yesterday cannot be the school of today. Though it savors of cant to say it, the school is society's means of self-preservation. It must look to the past and insure the transmission of all the treasures of human wisdom and skill and feeling and power, that the race has

¹Stout, John Elbert: "The Development of High School Curricula in the North Central States from 1860-1918." The University of Chicago, Supplementary Educational Monographs, Vol. 3, No. 3, Whole Number 15; Lull and Wilson: "The Redirection of High School Education," 1921, Lippincott.

²Starch: "Educational Psychology," Macmillan, 1921, p. 348.

accumulated in its onward way. But there are wonderful elements in the present as well, and both the past and the present need to be evaluated in the light of the future. Education, particularly in an industrial democracy like ours, must change, because times change. Life in America, people in America, conditions in America, today, are quite different than they were twenty years ago. As a matter of fact, the past eight years have completely upset our accustomed ways. Our whole system of corporate living is largely an experiment, and experimentation always implies change in method. No doubt there are many wild theories rampant in the educational field today, just as there are wild theories rampant in almost every other field. But they are symptomatic rather than anything else, and the inherent conservatism of the schools will always serve to neutralize their influence.

The most significant changes in American education are at present taking place in the secondary schools. This article aims to indicate the general trend of these changes. No attempt will be made to evaluate them, further than the suggestion of a sympathetic attitude based on the primary principle that the school must meet existing needs. At present these changes are regarded with dismay by those who breathe the rarefied atmosphere of the college and university. They fill the mind of the average tax-paying citizen with a vague sense of misgiving. Perhaps, as some feel, the American high-school program will eventually bankrupt the nation. But these things should have been thought of back in 1821, when with the establishment of the English Classical High School in Boston, the free public high school came into being. What we have today is but the logical development of the idea that brought that school into existence. It was a comparatively simple thing to prepare children for practical life in those days; it is not quite so simple today.

The English Classical High School was established in Boston for the purpose of "furnishing young men of the city who are not aiming at college, with a good English education, to fit them for active life, or qualify them for eminence in private or public stations." Prior to that time, the Latin Grammar School, with its college preparatory aim and its strictly

classical curriculum, was the usual type of secondary school. By 1850 most high schools had adopted a program that consulted both aims, preparation for life and preparation for college, and though lack of uniform standards prevailed until the end of the last century, the philosophy of American high-school education has been slowly formulating itself around these two objectives.

College entrance requirements being definite and life needs being indefinite, it was the influence of the higher institutions that dominated high-school curricula during the nineteenth century. The needs of such children as were not going to college were taken care of on the basis of electives. However, since 1900, the life-needs aim has gradually asserted itself, has become more definite and standardized, with the result that the tendency is to make it the central aim, and to regard the college entrance course as prevocational. The rights of the children who must go to work at the completion of the high-school period are now getting a hearing and the high school is no longer ashamed of its practical propensities. Culture is seeking redefinition in terms that will include things commercial and industrial. The sacred claims of the classics are still defended, but educators realize that if all children are to get a high-school education, Latin and higher mathematics cannot be made a universal requirement.

If we can take the experience of the north-central states as typical, we may say that by 1860 the subject-matter of the high-school curriculum had been stabilized as follows:

Mathematics: Arithmetic, algebra, geometry and trigonometry.

English: Grammar, composition, rhetoric and literature.

Science: Physiology, physical geography, botany, zoology, physics, chemistry, geology and astronomy.

Social Studies: European and American history, some civics, and political economy in a few schools.

Languages: Latin, French and German.

Vocational: Bookkeeping and commercial law.

Not all of these subjects were required. Trigonometry, rhetoric, literature, all sciences, except physics, civics and political economy, were generally electives. If a foreign language were required, it was usually Latin.

From 1860 onward we discern definite tendencies toward uniformity and standardization in the courses offered, and the names come to signify a definite content. In mathematics, there is a decline in trigonometry, and such subjects as analytics, calculus, surveying, navigation, etc., found in the older curricula, disappear finally. More time is given to algebra and geometry, with a consequent development of these subjects and a change in content. The character of the processes and problems in arithmetic is likewise changed.

The changes in English were most important because of their radical character. More time was devoted to the subject and greater uniformity prevailed. Though there was much agitation for a more functional treatment of grammar, the formal discipline point of view continued to dominate. Rhetoric loses its affinity to logic and is linked up with composition, the latter supplying the drill material. Three stages appear in the teaching of literature. The first of these based its work on Select Readings looking to training in oral reading and to acquaintance with the best authors. Then came a period when the biography of authors was the chief content. The tendency in the third period was to study the classics as wholes and to pay more attention to the historical aspects of the work rather than the author's life.

Though composition is mentioned in all courses of study, it was not until the end of the century that it began to receive due attention. Literary societies organized in the school afforded it some motivation. In the beginning it was regarded as a means of drilling grammatical rules into the mind of the child. Then it became the practice side of rhetoric, and finally it was linked up with literature, the classics furnishing at the same time the theme and the model. While there was always an amount of informal work on topics derived from the reading and the personal experiences of the pupils, composition work in the nineteenth century was characteristically formal.

In the Social Studies, the history of Europe continued to receive the major emphasis, particularly in its political and military phases. In 1885 Meyer's texts came into vogue with their discussion of social problems, art, commerce and religion. United States History is taught from a political and

constitutional point of view. Civics added to a theoretical analysis of state and federal constitutions, a study of the functions of government. Political Economy, at first a matter of principles and philosophy, comes to stress economic laws in their application to actual problems and conditions.

Little modification is seen in the teaching of languages. The vocational course adds typewriting, stenography and commercial arithmetic to bookkeeping. Mechanical drawing and manual training are introduced to meet the demands of industry.

In Science, the Natural History of the earlier curricula yielded place to biology, particularly to zoology. At first the point of view was the classification of forms, which gave way to comparative anatomy and finally to the study of structure from a morphological standpoint, the time being spent mostly on the lower forms. Botany came to be standardized along the line of plant morphology. Physiology began to stress hygiene along with the study of human anatomy.

Physics, known from the beginning as the "science of common things," becomes highly formal and mathematical, especially after the introduction of the laboratory method in 1885. Experiment was introduced into chemistry even earlier than this, but the laboratory work instead of making the subject real, tended to direct attention away from content and to emphasize technique.

Geology gradually declined. Geography remained in its physical and commercial aspects. The aim of teaching science likewise changed. The religious aim dominated at first. Then came the knowledge aim, a science being treated from the standpoint of pure knowledge or knowledge in its practical bearing on life. But the final and almost universal aim came to be mental discipline and the sciences were hailed as the best means of developing and training certain mental powers, such as observation, logical thinking, etc.

Throughout all this period, college entrance requirements continued to dominate and the general aspect of high-school education was formal. The conservative tendencies of the school show themselves in the wariness with which new subjects are greeted and the prevalence of the disciplinary aim.

Even practical subjects, such as bookkeeping and the commercial arts are taught in an idealistic fashion, and though much is said in condemnation of static methods, particularly in the prefaces of new texts, there is little realization of the better things promised.

However, after 1900 tendencies to radical change become more and more evident, and by 1910 the "reorganization of secondary education" was well under way. This was due partly to the evident shortcomings of American high-school education, both as a preparation for life and for college, partly to the growing conviction that secondary education should be made universally compulsory. The materials were scrutinized in the light of more definite aims. Convention ceased to exert its wonted influence in the determination of subject-matter. It became the fashion to demand the reason of things. Comparative studies made of secondary education in other countries brought to light the fact that better work is being done in less time in Europe and likewise that European practice can help us but little, since the American high school is unique in the fact that it regards the needs of the masses and is not intended to be a select school.

The changes that have been taking place since 1900 might be summarized as follows:

1. *Change in Scope.*—The tendency is to extend the period of secondary education downward to include the last two years of the elementary course in a Junior High School and upwards to bring in the first and second year of college into a Junior College. This would increase the secondary period to six and possibly eight years. The Junior High School movement has grown to the extent of assuming a definite place in American school organization. Its curriculum includes a number of the traditional high-school subjects as well as certain subjects of a prevocational nature. At present there is a lack of standardization, many so-called Junior High Schools being nothing more than traditional seventh and eighth grades with departmental teaching. There is likewise a lack of agreement as to whether it shall include only the seventh and eighth grades or whether it shall include the ninth grade in a three-year course. The nature and content

of the Junior College course has scarce been touched. The University of Minnesota is at present undertaking a study and evaluation of this latter movement.

2. *Change in Aims.*—The titles of high-school subjects have become more meaningful, indicating that aims are becoming more definite. Courses are offered in agriculture, business, millinery, pharmacy, telegraphy, etc. There are normal preparatory, office preparatory, scientific preparatory courses as definitely outlined as the traditional college preparatory course. These courses are planned and developed on the basis of pupil needs.

3. *Changes in Organization.*—Three general plans are in operation: (a) A single course with electives; (b) parallel courses; (c) major and minor courses. The size of the school and the character of the population seem to have most to do with the manner in which the work is organized. The relative merits of these different plans can only be judged by the manner in which they are administered.

4. *Changes in Subject-Matter.*—Commercial subjects and work in the fine and practical arts are growing. On the domestic side, three courses are offered: (a) Domestic science, treating of food, its value, preparation, etc.; (b) domestic art, looking to the artistic side of home-making and including such subjects as needlework and domestic designing; (c) domestic economy, or the science of home management.

Manual training and mechanical drawing are gradually being absorbed in the more definite phases of industrial arts, which include a study of type industries and some applied mechanics.

In the social studies, the emphasis is being placed on commerce and industry. This is especially true of history, where we note the advent of specialized histories, industrial and commercial, and a social orientation of the materials of general history. The tendency is to select those features of the past that bear directly on the present. Civics includes much sociological and economic material. Courses are likewise offered in elementary sociology and economics, treated not in a scientific but in a practical, functional manner.

There is a tendency toward unification in certain courses,

particularly in English and mathematics. Combination courses in grammar, composition and literature are being attempted. More intelligent attention is being paid to composition, oral as well as written and the problem approach is recommended. By way of correlation, themes are borrowed from other studies and written reports in all branches are regarded as composition. Such courses as business English are primarily composition courses. Literature is correlated with composition and includes current literature. Periodical literature is the basis of work in current events.

New texts in mathematics depart from the traditional arrangement of materials to meet the requirements of courses of a mixed or unified character. These courses are divided into three parts: (a) Arithmetic and geometry; (b) algebra and arithmetic; (c) algebra, geometry, and trigonometry. The conventional mensuration work of the eighth grade is presented on the basis of practical geometry and geometry is regarded as a more psychological approach to advanced mathematics than is algebra. The aim is to organize the material on pedagogical rather than logical lines.

In science, the highly specialized courses of the past, formally presented, are being reorganized on the basis of an introductory course in general science. This course was first introduced in 1905 and has been growing in favor. In many ways it resembles the natural history of earlier days. In the individual sciences the tendency is to put less emphasis on scientific training and to develop the content value. There is a decline in physiology with the advent of general science.

With the exception of the universal disappearance of Greek and the present vogue of Spanish, little change is noticed in the languages, although the question of methodology is very much to the fore.

If we may take the percentage of schools requiring a subject as an index of the importance with which it is regarded, then English ranks first, being universally required. Eighty per cent of the schools require algebra, 60 per cent social studies and plane geometry, 50 per cent science, 10 per cent a foreign language, 10 per cent fine or practical arts. The tendency is to yield on the point of algebra and to include more in

the line of social studies and practical arts. In the State of Ohio, for instance, algebra is no longer a required subject.

By way of corollary, the following points are of interest:

1. The American high school at the present time regards preparation for life as its chief function. Not that there is any tendency to neglect college entrance requirements. But the fact that secondary education is becoming universally compulsory demands that the needs of the majority of the children receive prior consideration. Lull and Wilson class college preparatory courses with the prevocational, regarding them as a minor in a scheme which is worked out on English and social studies as a major.

2. The rather utilitarian point of view that characterized the earlier efforts along the line of vocational training is being superseded by a more cultural outlook. The work is regarded as prevocational rather than vocational, and one of its aims is the testing out of aptitudes and abilities. The purpose is to inspire a broader sympathy through the mutual understanding of the inter-relationships existing between different types of life work. Cultural subjects are receiving motivation on the basis of preparation for leisure. This particular life need is better understood and appreciated. In these days of shorter working hours, the integrity of the nation depends very intimately on the manner in which people spend their leisure time.

3. The need of correlation is becoming more and more important. So many subjects are being offered that unless there is some organization the charge of "cafeteria" education will be warranted. The plan advocated by Lull and Wilson in their work on the Redirection of High School Education is worthy of serious attention. They organize the curriculum around English and the social studies as a core, listing other subjects in minor courses of a prevocational nature.

4. The need of trained high-school teachers is becoming more and more apparent. The psychology of adolescence is most important. High-school students cannot be treated as children, nor do college methods succeed. Professional training is at least as necessary for the high-school teacher as for the teacher in the grades. The unpopularity of Latin is due more

to faulty and haphazard methods than to any inherent difficulty in the subject itself. A college degree is no guarantee of teaching ability.

5. The charge so frequently brought against the elective system—that it makes the immature child the arbiter of his own destiny—fails to take account of the manner in which electives are administered. It is a course that is elected and not an individual branch. Moreover, good schools direct the election after consultation between the child, its parents and the school authorities. The whole process thus becomes a sort of vocational guidance. The differences in individual children are more apparent during the high-school period than their likenesses. When children of all classes and all degrees of ability, with a wide range of post-school destinies, attend a school, it would be manifestly absurd to force all to take the same course.

6. The philosophy of the modern high school is derived from a better knowledge of adolescence and its psychology, from a surer estimate of the needs of pupils preparing to live efficiently in a democratic commonwealth, and from a concept of character defined in terms of citizenship. The ideal of leadership no longer dominates in the same degree, although it is stressed and encouraged in the college preparatory aim. From the beginning, the American high school has gloried in the sobriquet, "The people's school." Only today is the full meaning of this term being realized in practice.

CONCLUSION

The effects of the development of high-school education in the United States on the Catholic school system calls for much prudent thought and courage to face eventualities. As Father Flood points out in his article, little is to be gained by academic discussion as to the principle of compulsory secondary education. We are facing a fact, not a theory. It becomes a question of either allowing our children to enter the public high schools at the most critical period of their development, or of supplying them with the same facilities under Catholic auspices. The Central Catholic High School is our promise and our hope. It is manifestly absurd to expect every parish to maintain and equip a high school that

would meet requirements. Were college entrance our only concern, or were it only a matter of giving a business course of a strictly vocational nature, the case might be different. But neither of these aims is adequate when the law requires all children to remain in school until they are sixteen or even eighteen years of age. Besides, too many Catholics have been shunted into routine office jobs which they come to hate, simply because no other course was offered. The Catholic high school may not deprive Catholic boys and girls of any of the real advantages they might have received had they gone to the secular schools. The task ahead of us in this regard is a great one. That it will be met bravely and successfully we know, because it is in the hands of our bishops and pastors, who never faint at obstacles when the spiritual welfare of our children is at stake.

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CATHOLIC HIGH SCHOOLS AND AFFILIATION

Ten years ago next April, the Board of Trustees of the University devised a plan whereby the work of Catholic higher education could be more closely articulated with that of our secondary schools and colleges. By this procedure they hoped to aid in the solution of what had long been felt as a serious problem. Previous to their action much discussion had been carried on by one committee after another, but until April 17, 1912, no actual plan had been adopted and tried. Theirs was therefore the first formulated, and its execution has met with no little success. Its strength is displaying itself each year in a most gratifying manner. Its far-reaching benefits are likewise being realized as the figures given below clearly indicate. Since the Board of Trustees set forth the plans whereby our Catholic colleges and high schools could affiliate with the Catholic University, 16 colleges, 225 high schools and 60 normal novitiates have adopted this plan for the standardization of their work.

Its growth has been from within, and therefore it is showing the effects of what has long been accepted as a sociological axiom, that the school, next to the Church, is the most conservative of institutions. This gradual growth has been as protective as it has been natural. Nothing of the radical and its disruptive effects has been experienced. The resulting modification and betterment of matter, method and product are the best proofs that our Catholic school system has here a plan that unites without centralizing, that provides uniformity without sameness, and that permits cooperation without weakening autonomy.

The plan of affiliation may be briefly described as follows: It is a statement of principles whereby a school may judge itself to be in a recognized group of institutions. This decision of the school itself is then, upon application of the school, officially approved by the committee appointed for the purpose by the Catholic University. The school in applying for such official recognition expresses its desire to be aided in its endeavor to enter into cooperation with other institutions,

in all that helps in the work of standardization. It likewise contracts to submit its work to an examining board, whose duty it is to compare the work of the various schools and report to the Committee on Affiliation. The secretary of this committee then sends to each affiliated school the results of the comparative tests. This report furnishes the institution with the necessary information that indicates its strength and its weakness in comparison with all the other schools affiliated. The advantages accruing from this will be treated in another part of the present paper. The tests upon which this comparative rating is based are set in each of the approved subjects, as outlined in the syllabus sent by the University to each affiliated high school.

Each department of the University has an academic supervision, both as to its extent and content for high-school needs, of the subject-matter of the studies under its immediate direction. The members of these various departments meet at a specified time and collectively prepare the questions to be submitted to the schools for the yearly test already mentioned. The purpose of this mode of procedure and the benefits resulting will be presented later. The questions are sent to the committee on affiliation and, if approved by them, are then printed and forwarded to the various schools as per order.

The examination papers written by the students are forwarded to the University, where they are inspected by the instructors of the University and rated according to a definite scale. On the official examination card attached to each paper the instructor records the mark attained by the pupil in the examination. These cards are then forwarded to the office of affiliation and are there filed for future reference. With the cards properly signed, the instructor sends to each school a written statement embodying his impressions concerning the work done by the school as evidenced in the qualities of the papers examined. In this report the instructors endeavor to offer helpful and constructive suggestions as to how the presentation of the subject-matter can be improved or corrected.

The subjects approved by the Committee on Affiliation are in-

creased according to a definite plan. At first only those met the approval that were absolutely essential for the maintenance of the high standard set by the Board of Trustees for our Catholic high schools and academies. In the first year of its execution the process of affiliation included nine distinct branches so arranged as to permit a high school to offer twenty-seven units of work. Since that time the different branches have increased to fifteen, and the number of courses for which a yearly examination is set is now forty-seven. This growth is determined by the actual needs of the schools. That is to say, when the affiliated high schools show by their inspection report made each year that there is an increasing demand for a subject, the committee sets about arranging for the same. It requests that department of the University, under whose direction this work naturally falls, to draw up an outline of the work in this study for the high schools. By this procedure the University aims to offer the best that can be had in the way of completeness of matter. The Department of Education then passes upon the outline, judging it from the standpoint of sound pedagogics. Finally the Committee on Affiliation, in whose immediate charge the high schools and their needs have been placed, reviews the outline from this angle and, if its approval is given, the outline is incorporated into the syllabus. The wide range of subjects thus carefully approved gives our affiliated Catholic high schools that essential freedom of choice which is a *sine qua non* for local needs and progress.

A few words concerning the required units will give the reader an insight into how a common standard is made possible and compatible with freedom of choice. Each affiliated high school receives the official approval if it offers a course of fifteen units eleven of which must be the constants stated on page 2 of the syllabus. These are as follows: Religion, two units (the units of this subject are distributed over the four years of high school); English, three units; some other language, two units; the prescribed year of history, one unit; mathematics, two units; and natural science, one unit. The remaining four units are elective. They are to be offered, however, in such a way that a pupil can follow another course

of three units in one of the subjects other than English enumerated above. Music and the other approved subjects not listed above cannot be substituted for the other subject of three units. These are termed free electives.

The reasons for this curriculum are suggested by the purpose of the high school. The high school has two functions: Its first and chief duty is to prepare those pupils who are not to continue their formal education beyond the high-school period. The other is to give a proper preparation to those students who are to enter our higher schools of learning. Some studies are necessary for both classes of students, while other studies are of immediate practical value to one or other of the two groups. This being the case, the high school, if it is to be of service to all its pupils, must provide for both constants and electives. For our Catholic high schools, Religion holds the central place among those studies needed by all our pupils. In order that Religion may be correlated with all the other studies of the curriculum the two units of Religion have been distributed over the entire high-school course, which under ordinary circumstances is four years. The study of English, it goes without saying, is absolutely essential for all American children. Next to Religion it holds the premier place in every Catholic school on American soil. Without a grasp of the vernacular, no high-school pupil could expect to get very far in either life or the professions. The training as well as the information gained by the study of mathematics makes this subject of real value to all students of our high schools. The study of history, both as a source of pragmatic information and as a source of true culture, rightly places this subject among the constants. To every student of the high school the knowledge of a second language is becoming more and more imperative. For those who go to higher schools its need is doubtlessly apparent. For those who are to enter into the complex life of the average American city and even rural hamlet a second language will be found not infrequently useful and at times the chief factor in aiding such a student to avoid the blind-alley type of position. Linguistics as a means of mental development, despite the arguments of its opponents, has still strength enough to de-

mand a place among the required studies. What has been said in behalf of teaching the high-school student a second language other than English can be applied with still greater force to the study of the natural sciences. At least one year, therefore, of a natural science ought to be taken by every student in high school.

Here the needs common to all students end and those special requisites and their purpose begin. The student going to college or technical school will be obliged to add those elements that better prepare him for the specialized work of his future profession or avocation. A study of the approved branches as outlined in the syllabus shows at once how this phase of the high-school curriculum has been provided for in a manner both admirable and practical. The electives and the method of their selection have been so arranged that sufficient latitude is allowed to enable the student to determine his vocation and to begin his preparation for it before he leaves the high school. The requirement of advanced work in at least two subjects removes the danger and defects that too often attend this phase of high-school education.

Not only has the curriculum been worked out in terms of units both as to number and arrangement but also as to subject-matter. Each year a syllabus containing an outline of each approved subject-matter is sent to the affiliated high schools. It is upon these outlines that the yearly examinations are based. To all students of our affiliated high schools who are successful in the requisite number of the yearly tests, a certificate of graduation is granted. The granting of this certificate is likewise protected by certain other regulations devised for the purpose of helping to maintain the high standard set by the Trustees of the University. What these are may be reviewed on pages 3, 4 and 34 of the Syllabus on Affiliation. To those pupils who, for one reason or another, have been unable to reach the standard set or are forced to leave before gaining the requisite number of required units, another form of certificate is issued. This certificate, likewise, has its own protective regulations stated in the syllabus. On this certificate are listed all the subjects which have been successfully passed by the pupil.

By the above arrangement of certification the process of affiliation aims to take into consideration the ever-present features of the varying capacities of pupils, economic exigencies as well as other factors over which we have no control. It likewise permits stronger pupils to cover a wider field and present more than the mere minimum number of units for graduation. The opportunity for a progressive motivation is thus offered to the school as a whole and to each pupil according to his merits. In plainer terms it is in the power of the pupil himself to determine the richness, both in quantity and quality, of his high-school course and the diploma which officially represents it.

Having reviewed the main features of the process of affiliation, let us now answer the question, which logically follows this delineation: What is the aim or purpose of this process, which now extends itself into 63 dioceses, 42 states and which aided over 2,000 high-school teachers during the scholastic year of 1920-1921? The answer to this question is found in the response that the University has striven to give to the injunction of its venerable founder, Leo XIII, in his Apostolic Letter, *Magni Nobis Gaudii*: "We exhort you all that you shall take care to affiliate with your University, your seminaries, colleges and other institutions according to the plans suggested in the constitutions, in such a manner as not to destroy their autonomy." The trustees of the University established the process of affiliation in order to help in the standardization of our Catholic high schools and colleges and to secure due recognition for those institutions which are doing good work. By this procedure the Catholic University, "without destroying their autonomy," hopes to assist the Catholic secondary schools of our country to the highest possible efficiency. It further aims so to unify the system that each school will be improved and assisted by the healthy *esprit de corps* that naturally results from this plan. By this means also a sage type of social motivation is developed throughout the entire system, each institution realizing that the strength of the group depends on the zeal and devotion of each member. It is a concrete application of the fundamental principle of our national strength, "*E Pluribus Unum*."

Stated from another angle, it is an effective antidote to the rather venturous nationalization of education, which in our opinion is beginning at the wrong end. Affiliation is not the fitting of the foot to the shoe but of the shoe to the foot, a vastly different process both in aim and effect.

It is most gratifying to state that from almost every school has come the report that the chief benefit has been in the improvement of the work performed by each pupil. Affiliation makes each pupil realize that on his endeavors and results depends not only his own success but that of his school as well. Team-work, then, of a finer quality results. Each class and each member of the class more and more resolutely strives to put forth the best of their energies, and thus the wheels of the school work are made to turn in a steady and more profitable manner. The individualistic impulses strong in us all are thus utilized as potent factors in the expression of the spirit-of-service motive. As one teacher puts it, "Affiliation makes one's very selfishness social."

By the sliding scale of constants and electives, a notable feature of the process, the varied abilities of our pupils are reckoned with and pedagogically protected. Nothing of the lock-step aspect is here discernible. Each pupil's needs are provided for, and his powers to satisfy them are adequately utilized. The dangers resulting from failure are insured against by the prudent regulations relating to the number of units a pupil may attempt to gain each year. To the principals of the affiliated high schools properly belongs the duty of arranging the number of units of work the pupils can reasonably follow during any one year, and to them it has been intrusted, only the maximum beyond which the brightest could not safely venture being set by regulation. With the aid of his co-workers, the principal of any school interprets the course of studies in conformity with the latent abilities of the pupils, thus aiding the pupil in mastering the number of subjects he can successfully cope with each year. The absence of a set time for graduation in terms of years removes the sting and the detrimental effects of being put back. Academic progress becomes in such a plan its own force of motivation. The pupil's ambition is, in other words, the

norm by which his success is measured. He is allowed to do all he can, being limited only by the extent of his own efforts. The elimination of a set number of courses to be followed each year, of a set time for class graduation and their faulty effects, is indeed a step in constructive school progress.

Besides the positive benefits discussed, the process of affiliation removes many of the disagreeable features of school work and administration. These may be called its negative benefits. For example, by giving the teacher a definite program to follow, it renders remote the temptation to dwell too long on what may be especially agreeable to the teacher and to neglect as a consequence the other portions of the work outlined. Each teacher realizes that the yearly test is to cover the entire outline and is therefore properly directed in giving a proportionate attention to all parts of the subject-matter.

The plan also lessens the tendency to permit the unwise granting of too many free days. It likewise diminishes the eagerness, or rather the willingness, of some students to remain at home with the least of reasons, or perhaps with no reason at all. The school realizes that it, as well as the pupils, is on examination and is therefore urged to take preventive means toward those things that might impair its standing. "Of course no school is furnished with the information concerning the rank or percentages attained by the pupils in any other school in the system, yet by the tabulated findings of the comparative record sheet it can see how its standing in each subject compares with the average of all the other schools which took similar tests."

The questionable element of partiality, always present when a prize is offered in a school, is in this process entirely neutralized. In this scheme the papers are examined by instructors who do not personally know the pupils and who cannot even remotely be suspected of bias. Can this be regarded as other than a blessing to both teachers and parents, who have memories of the delicate and unpleasant scenes into which they have been forced as plaintiffs and defendants?

In this method of comparative examinations all possibility of criticism of the snap-judgment type is eliminated. Over-

indulgent parents and relatives of the children too well realize that whatever ground they may have felt they had, under a different system, for making the charge that the pupil's failure was due to the difficulty of the examination questions, is removed in this system. Here the same program of subject-matter is followed by all the schools and the same questions are given all. The results are a measure of relative achievement among all the pupils and not those merely of any particular school. The removal of this too often unjust and unfounded criticism has been pronounced by many of the teachers as a distinct advantage and benefit.

Other considerations might be added regarding certain by-products of affiliation. Sufficient has been advanced, it is hoped, to show that the labors of those immediately engaged in the working of affiliation have not been all in vain. Its yearly increase and "the results so far achieved have more than justified the most sanguine expectations of the Board of Trustees of the Catholic University." They builded better than they know. To them we owe a debt of profound gratitude.

LEO L. McVAY.

THE SCHOOL PLAYGROUND AND ITS EQUIPMENT

Would it be putting it too strongly to say that the school playground has more often than not been treated in the United States like the proverbial red-haired stepchild? Yet, if we look upon children's play as an integral factor in their physical, intellectual and moral education, should not our attitude be more parental and less stepmotherly towards their play yard and play facilities? If, as a builder of bodies and souls, play is second only if at all to classroom activities, is not the layout and equipment of the playground of little if any less importance than the layout and equipment of the classroom? The present paper offers a few tentative suggestions chiefly on the dimensions, surfacing, equipment and layout of the school playground.

The contemporary trend among educational authorities is towards the provision of larger and larger playgrounds. One indication of this trend is the widely accepted standard of one city block per school. Often, however, particularly in congested city districts, the price of land is prohibitive. Boarding schools require more play space than day schools, high schools more than grade schools, boys ordinarily more than girls. No fixed standard of square feet of play space per child obtains. The English Board of Education requires 30 square feet. This standard is probably too low. Fifty or more would be better, but even this estimate is suggested with much hesitation.

Of playground surfacing we can speak with a little more confidence. Grass would be ideal if some Burbank could develop a grass hardy enough to withstand the trampling of hundreds of small feet each day. Brick, cement and asphalt are easily kept free of mud, but are poorly adapted to play. Not only do they lack resilience but also they multiply the need for first-aid treatment to the child and to his clothes as the result of falls. Coarse cinders, too, cause ugly cuts and gashes to hands and knees, as does also rough gravel or broken stone.

In the Chicago playgrounds a thin layer, about one cubic yard to 100 square yards of surface, of torpedo sand or gravel

spread over a sub-soil of clay or loam, has proven very satisfactory. This gravel, which can be obtained from building contractors, is a fine sand from which the dust has been sifted, leaving only small pebbles the size of a pea or about one-quarter inch in diameter. It needs, of course, to be well rolled. It is enduring, reasonably dust-proof and mud-proof, resilient, and easy on clothes and cuticle. It dries rapidly after rain. A clay surface becomes muddy easily, but sandy loam or mixtures of clay loam and cinders make good surfaces.

Where the funds are available, it is well to excavate the ground to the depth of about 10 inches or a foot. Seven or 8 inches of cinders are put in first and rolled, and on top of these 3 or 4 inches of broken stone. After rolling, a light covering of sharp sand, fine gravel or crushed granite is added. Sprinkling the surface with glutrin, a by-product of the wood industry, helps much towards making the surface dust-proof and rain-proof.¹

It is perhaps hardly necessary to call attention to the very import question of drainage. The whole play space should be slightly convex, draining towards the edges rather than towards a central catch basin. Nor need insistence be put upon the desirability of level as opposed to hilly grounds as play spaces. Hill sides are good places to romp on but are adapted to very few games.

Shade trees near the borders or in corners of the playground are required for the small children and girls in warmer weather and are a welcome protection for quiet games. Take a glance in hot, sunny weather at any playground so furnished, and you will see the children's own preferences. Some kind of fencing is desirable for many reasons, at least in city play yards. A woven wire fence with rapidly growing vines adds an attractive tone of beauty to the grounds and does not take up play space as do flower beds if they are too extensive.

¹For further details on surfacing, see H. S. Curtis, "Education through Play," New York, 1921, pp. 121-7; W. D. Champlin, "Playground Surfacing," in *The Playground*, 1913-14, vii, pp. 433-8; E. B. DeGroot, "A Practical Talk on Play," repr. from *The Playground*, Aug., 1911, pp. 5-7; A. and L. H. Leland, "Playground Technique and Playcraft," 1909, i, pp. 84-7.

A playground requires equipment. But playground apparatus proper is a secondary consideration; although it has its uses and value. We may take up equipment first and deal with apparatus later.

A sand garden or sand bin is an inexpensive bit of equipment and furnishes unending amusement to the primary children. The plank wall about 12 or 16 inches costs little. The sand bed should be about a foot deep. The bin should be raked thoroughly every day. A location under a tree best combines comfort with sanitation. If the children themselves are organized into a Clean-Up Club and given the responsibility for keeping the sand sanitary, they will learn an excellent lesson in health and responsibility.

Many municipal playgrounds have found the wading or paddling pool one of their most popular attractions in warmer weather. An improvised pool can be made in the corner of nearly any play ground by excavating a concave, saucer-shaped hollow to allow a depth of from 4 inches of water at the edge to 12 or 16 inches at the center. A drain may be necessary. Many wading pools are made with a cement bottom. The wading pool may be less adapted to the city day school than to the municipal playground, but in many places may be of value, as it certainly is in boarding schools and in institutions for dependent or orphan children.

Every school yard should have its sand pit for broad and high jumping. It takes up little space if dug somewhere on the edge of the grounds and will furnish opportunity for excellent exercise to the boys. The pit should be about 4 feet by 15 or 20 and filled with about 8 or 10 inches of sand. It should be provided with a permanent take-off board. It can also be used for pole vaulting. A pole and jumping standards are of course required.

If there be enough space in the school yard, a cinder path for running can be constructed around the edges. The center of the playground should be left as free as possible as a space for games like indoor baseball, volley ball, basket-ball and ring games. In fact it is a first principle in playground equipment to place apparatus, sand pits and sand bins, tracks, quoit and croquet courts in corners or around the edges of the

play space, leaving the central area free for games and folk dancing.

For the small children a generous supply of building blocks made in about four sizes—four-by-four cubes, two-by-four-by-eight oblongs, triangular prisms, and pillars made by cutting oblongs in two—will give material for valuable play in construction. A supply of soft balls and bean bags may be necessary. Standards for jumping and hurdles will be appreciated, especially by the boys.

Nearly all of this equipment can be made by the boys and girls themselves, and it is much better that they do so than that the equipment be supplied ready made by the school. There is good opportunity here for tying together class work in sewing and manual training with play interest and with a helpful tinge of social helpfulness. By organizing the children themselves to keep the playground in order they will be getting some good, practical training in civic and moral responsibility and teamwork. It is well, too, to get the boys to construct the sand pit and the running track, and the laying out of indoor baseball or other courts for games will give a new interest to youngsters who are having or have had mensuration and wondered what use the whole thing was to anybody. Even in schools that do not teach manual training the boys can be readily coached by any "handy man" in the faculty to make such things as jumping standards and hurdles.²

Mention playground to many people and immediately there arises in their mind the visual image of swings, horizontal bars, climbing ladders and other apparatus. But apparatus is only a minor part of playground equipment, and many playgrounds, both school and municipal, have gotten along very well with a minimum of apparatus or without any apparatus at all. In fact some playground leaders consider that the chief value of apparatus is that of advertising the playground to the child and the public at large.

In choosing among the various kinds of apparatus, several points have to be considered. What is the cost? Does the

²For detailed instructions and specifications for making home-made equipment and apparatus, see Leland, I. C., and bibliography, *ibid.*, pp. 268-9.

particular piece of apparatus easily get out of order? Is it durable? How dangerous is it or how safe? Does it provide merely amusement or does it furnish also a means of physical exercise and of neuro-muscular, emotional, intellectual, and moral training? Has it lasting interest for the child, and does it offer opportunities for initiative and ingenuity in stunts?

From nearly every standpoint *play by games is worth far more than play on apparatus*. And a playground that relies on elaborate equipment of apparatus rather than on intelligent leadership in games is usually of little worth as an upbuilder of childhood. Moreover, many a playground of small dimensions has been practically ruined by having its apparatus located in the center instead of on the borders of its area. Nevertheless, some types of apparatus seem to have a permanent value in spite of their lower educational rating.

Do people ever outgrow their love of swinging? Certainly few children do. It is well to have two sizes of swings at least, lower ones for the younger children and higher ones for the older. Most swinging accidents occur through children on the ground being struck by the weighted swing in motion. A prudent precaution adopted on some playgrounds is to enclose the swing space with a low hedge or fence and to fasten lengths of rubber hose on the edges of the swing seat. Swinging seems to have some emotional value, but its physical and moral value is almost nil.

Several years ago I was taken in company with a physician, about nine o'clock at night, through the small boys' dormitory of an orphanage. One youngster of about three years of age, as broad as he was long, was aroused from his sleep and was asked if he would like to take a slide. He jumped out of bed in high glee, ran out to the corridor where the slide was located, climbed up the ladder and slid down all smiles and landed in a heap. On invitation, he repeated the trick, ran back to bed aglow with happiness and was off to sleep in less than two minutes.

He typified the child's joy at gliding down an inclined plane, be it cellar door or balustrade. What the source of that joy is no psychologist has discovered and analyzed for us. The

fact remains none the less, and we should have to be stern masters to deny the child an outlet for his longing to slide. The playground slide should, however, be made, like the swing, in two sizes, one low for smaller children, the other higher for the larger ones. Pine and cedar slides are apt to splinter, and steel may rust. Maple or oak is preferable.

Contrary to common belief, there is probably less danger in slides than in seesaws. However, in the longer seesaw mounted on a low standard the danger is measurably reduced. Of the less common types of apparatus, such as the merry-go-round, the Flying Dutchman and the rocking boat, not much need be said. Perhaps the less the better. They have not much to recommend them. And a good many playground authorities take a critical attitude even towards the giant stride and particularly towards the teeter ladder, although others view them more favorably.

Of the typical gym apparatus that has been transferred to the outdoor playground, probably the horizontal bar for boys is the most valuable. For chinning tests and for stunts, it is well worth while installing. Other gym apparatus, except the climbing rope or pole, can be dispensed with in school playgrounds with little or no loss of efficiency as a rule, although, if funds and space permit, a combination frame with trapeze, rings, and ladders may be of some value. Curtis calls the outdoor gymnasium a "monkey house to climb about in." Even at that, it is not entirely bereft of value.

A simple but less common piece of apparatus is the balancing mast, a heavy beam supported on edge a few inches above the ground. Walking on the narrow edge gives both pleasure and practice in balancing without the danger attending walking on fence tops or barn rafters, which we as boys so delighted in. If tether ball is played on the ground, the pole should be erected in a corner or other out-of-the-way spot. As noted above, the central area of the playground should, unless the ground be exceptionally large, be left entirely free for games and open play.

Little has been said of indoor recreation, a problem often acute in boarding schools during rainy periods. Where finances permit, in schools for either girls or boys, there should

be a gymnasium and, if at all possible, a swimming pool. The upkeep of the latter is somewhat expensive, but if the funds are available the results are well worth the expense. When all is said and done, there is no form of indoor sport that has such a strong appeal for so large a number or that has such splendid physical benefits as swimming. While the problem of pool sanitation is not easy to solve, the danger has by simple methods been reduced to a negligible minimum.³

Where there is neither gymnasium nor swimming pool, there should be spacious playrooms, well lighted and well ventilated and well surfaced. It is hard enough on the youngsters to have to stay indoors for a whole day or more at a time without their being crowded and cramped in dark and forbidding rooms without adequate play space, equipment or apparatus. A supply of equipment for quiet games will help. An alert teacher will find many suggestions for indoor games suited to the playroom in the works, particularly Jessie Bancroft's, recommended in the last paragraph of the article published by the writer in the January number of the *REVIEW*.

Much fuller details on the whole subject of playgrounds and their equipment may be found in H. S. Curtis' "The Practical Conduct of Play" (Macmillan) and *passim* in the files of *The Playground*, particularly in Volume seven, 1913-14, pp. 8-15, 301-29, 439-45, 482-7. The reader is referred to these sources as among the best available for the ampler treatment which the limits of this brief article will not permit.

JOHN M. COOPER.

³For details see Joseph E. Raycroft, "Some Notes on the Construction and Administration of Swimming Pools," in *The Playground*, vii, pp. 417-33.

LEGAL STATUS OF CATHOLIC SCHOOLS IN WESTERN CANADA

(Continued)

Church Holy Days are recognized by provincial law, and "no penalty may be imposed in respect to the absence of a child from school on a day regarded as a Holy Day by the Church or religious denomination to which such child belongs."¹¹³ Although the educational legislation of the province makes provision for the recognition and support of denominational schools under its separate school system, yet not all such schools in Alberta come directly under the control of the Department of Education. Catholics or the members of any other religious denomination are left free to establish private schools if they so desire. At present, according to report of the Department of Education, there are at least twenty-two such schools in actual operation, two of which are Catholic.¹¹⁴ All such "private schools, whether Roman Catholic or Protestant, are inspected regularly by the provincial inspectors, and a report of the work being done in these institutions is kept on file in the Department of Education."¹¹⁵ No restrictions, however, are placed on private schools as regards qualifications of teachers, courses given, etc. Attendance at such schools is held sufficient to fulfill the obligations of the School Attendance Act of the province.

SASKATCHEWAN

In Saskatchewan, as in Alberta, the existence of separate schools, as guaranteed by the new provincial constitution, became immediately the chief issue in the elections of 1905. On the passing of the Saskatchewan Act, which is identical in its provisions with the Alberta Act, Mr. William Scott, who then represented the Regina district in the Federal Parliament at Ottawa, was called upon to form a government. The election campaign which followed was intensely exciting.

¹¹³School Attendance Act, 1910, section 17, Edmonton, 1919.

¹¹⁴Cf. Annual Report of Department of Education, 1918, p. 120, Edmonton, 1919.

¹¹⁵Ross, J. T., Deputy Minister of Education, Letter dated, Edmonton, January 28, 1920.

The Liberal Party, with Mr. Scott as leader, supported the issue as determined by the Federal Government in "Section 17" of the Saskatchewan constitution. The Conservative Party adopted as their slogan, "down with coercion." They contended that the determination of all matters pertaining to education should be left to the decision of the new province itself. Although the system of education perpetuated by Section 17 of the Autonomy Act had proven satisfactory in the past, they maintained that this fact did not justify the Federal Government in infringing on the provincial domain.

Besides, some contended that the date of union was really 1870 and not 1905. As there was no separate school system established "by law" in operation at that earlier date, when the Dominion Government purchased the North-West Territories from the Hudson's Bay Company, it would follow, they urged, that Section 11 of the North-West Territories Act, 1875, would not be applicable to the new province. Saskatchewan could, therefore, begin her career unhampered by any constitutional restrictions or alleged obligations to separate schools.

In answer to the contention of the Conservative Party the Liberals pointed out that Section 2 of the British North America Act, 1871, gave to the Dominion Parliament complete power to legislate with respect to the "constitution and administration" for all future new provinces, on their being established out of unorganized territory and admitted to confederation. Besides, they urged, if Section 17 of the Saskatchewan Act should, on appeal to the courts, be declared "ultra vires" of the Dominion Legislature, then Section 93 of the British North America Act would surely apply in its entirety to the new province. In support of this contention they invoked the statements of leading Canadian statesmen, including that of Lord Carnarvan, who in 1867 had introduced the Bill of Confederation into the Imperial Parliament. Then, as the territorial ordinances of 1892 and 1901 were, in the words of Sir Wilfred Laurier, "somewhat at variance with the principles laid down by the organic law of 1875,"¹¹⁶ the Federal statute would undoubtedly hold precedence, with the

¹¹⁶Canadian Legislative Debates, June 29, 1905, Hansard, p. 1905.

result that under the guarantee of Section 93 of the British North America Act the sectarian system established under the territorial ordinance would become the regular provincial system.

The outcome of the elections was, in Alberta, a victory for the Liberal Party. By a majority of 16 to 9, Section 17 of the Saskatchewan Act was sustained by the voters of the new province.¹¹⁷ The educational system then in force, with its separate schools, as provided for by the territorial ordinances of 1892 and 1901, was, as in the province of Alberta, adopted and made the basis of the Saskatchewan provincial system. Very little, if any, change has been introduced by the provincial legislature as regards the relation of Catholic schools to the provincial system. As it stands today, the system varies but little, as far as the legal standing of Catholic schools is concerned, from that of 1901. Previous to that year, both Alberta and Saskatchewan were subject to the same school ordinances and departmental regulations.¹¹⁸

In September, 1905, both provinces began their new autonomous career with the same Federal regulation with respect to separate schools, Section 17 of the Saskatchewan Act being identical with Section 17 of the Alberta Act. Since that date their educational systems have developed along almost identical lines. As in Alberta the administration of education in Saskatchewan is in the hands of the provincial executive and is placed under the control of a central Department of Education which is presided over by a member of the provincial cabinet styled the Minister of Education.¹¹⁹ He is assisted by a "superintendent, deputy, minister, inspectors, etc.,"¹²⁰ also by an "educational council" which, like that of Alberta, consists of "five persons, at least two of whom shall be Roman Catholics."¹²¹

This council "represents the general educational policies of the people and must be consulted before any departmental

¹¹⁷Cf. Weir, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

¹¹⁸North-West Territorial Ordinance, chaps. 29, 30, 1901.

¹¹⁹Saskatchewan Consolidated School Acts, section 3, Regina, 1919.

¹²⁰*Op. cit.*, section 3 (2).

¹²¹*Op. cit.*, section 9.

regulations can be adopted."¹²² It may on its own initiative "consider also any questions concerning the educational system of Saskatchewan as to it seems fit and report therein to the Lieutenant Governor in Council."¹²³ In matters pertaining to the establishment, maintenance and inspection, the qualifications, training and licensing of teachers, text-books, and religious instruction the laws are almost identical in their wording with those of Alberta. The Canadian Catholic Readers are prescribed as "optional"¹²⁴ for Catholic separate schools. Although formal religious instruction may only be given during the last half hour of the daily school period, the law does not interfere with informal or correlated moral and religious instruction during other portions of the regular school¹²⁵ day.

As in Alberta almost all separate schools, as well as many of the public schools, are Catholic. In the year 1905, when the province was established, there were only seven Catholic separate schools, while the Catholic public schools numbered thirty-one.¹²⁶ In many other districts the schools were practically Catholic, as the majority of the ratepayers were of that faith. Honorable J. A. Calder, Minister of Education at the time when Saskatchewan was admitted to confederation, stated: "There are scores, yes, probably hundreds of such (namely, public school) districts in which the majority of ratepayers are Roman Catholics."¹²⁷ In most of these cases the treatment accorded non-Catholics was so satisfactory that "no attempt had been made to establish separate schools."¹²⁸ Only two Protestant separate schools existed at that date.¹²⁹ Of the separate schools in existence at the present time fifteen are Catholic and four Protestant.¹³⁰ There are no figures available to indicate the number of public schools which are

¹²²Foght, "Survey of Education in the Province of Saskatchewan," p. 22, Regina, 1918.

¹²³Section 2.

¹²⁴Regulations of the Department of Education, section 27 (9).

¹²⁵Cf. Consolidated School Acts, section 178.

¹²⁶Cf. "Canada and Its Provinces," vol. 20, p. 547.

¹²⁷Hopkins, *Canadian Annual Review*, 1905.

¹²⁸Weir, *op. cit.*, p. 101.

¹²⁹Cf. "Canada and Its Provinces," vol. 20, p. 457.

¹³⁰Cf. Annual Report of the Department of Education, p. 22, Regina, 1919.

Catholic, but in view of the fact that there are quite a number of Catholic settlements (French, German, Ruthenian, etc.), it may safely be said that many such schools exist. Besides, there are within the province many Catholic schools which do not come under the direct control of the Educational Department. The number of such schools at the beginning of the year 1919 was twenty-four.¹³¹ Until the year 1918 no attempt had been made by the provincial authorities to supervise such schools. Since then, however, acting on the recommendations made by Dr. Fogt of the United States Bureau of Education "that all private schools now operating without specific authority of law be placed under competent government inspection, and that in matters of study courses, teacher certification, etc., these schools be adjusted gradually to conform more closely to the needs of the Canadian people, etc.,"¹³² some preliminary attempts at supervising these schools have been introduced.

Of the legal right of the provincial authorities to carry out these recommendations of the survey there can be no question. Whether the provincial legislature could abolish all private schools under the constitutional guarantees there may be some question. According to Mr. Scott, the late Premier and Minister of Education, the provincial authorities "have the power to prohibit all parochial schools and have nothing but public and separate schools. It is a matter of policy whether it should be done."¹³³ So far, however, the provincial authorities have deemed it advisable to allow for the continuance of private schools in both provinces under a minimum of supervision.

One important difference may be noted in the attitude of Saskatchewan legislation towards private schools. The School Grants Act of the province makes it possible for the Lieutenant Governor in Council "to order the payment of a special grant out of the moneys appropriated by the Legislature and available for grants in aid of elementary education to any

¹³¹Cf. *op. cit.*, pp. 47, 48.

¹³²Survey of Education in Province of Saskatchewan, p. 154, Regina, 1918.

¹³³Response to Premier Scott, January 20, 1916, to Orange Delegation advocating the abolition of private schools. Weir, *op. cit.*, p. 140.

school in the province, whether organized and operated according to law or not."¹²⁴ But, as a matter of fact, the instances in which such aid had been extended to private schools are but few. Catholics generally in both provinces, wherever qualified teachers are available, are quite satisfied to identify themselves with the existing provincial system.

SUMMARY

In British Columbia, Catholic schools have never formed a part of the provincial system. At present Catholic parochial schools are permitted to exist and operate without being restricted in any way by provincial regulations, but they have no actual legal status. Indirectly they are recognized by the provincial authorities, as attendance at these schools is considered sufficient for the satisfactory observance of the provincial compulsory school ordinance. As the Catholic schools which existed prior to confederation did not form a regular part of the early state system, Catholics have not at present any valid legal claim to state recognition of their schools, but, as there exists no insurmountable barrier to prevent the provincial authorities from giving Catholic schools formal recognition at any future date, it is quite within the region of possibility for Catholics to aspire and strive for the attainment of that end. Should Catholic schools once receive legal recognition under provincial legislation, Section 93 of the British North America Act, which would then apply with all its safeguarding powers, would ensure the recognition of the right of Catholic schools to continued existence and state support. Although it would seem at present entirely beyond the power of the provincial legislature to abolish Catholic private schools, yet there exists no legal prohibition to prevent the state, if it deemed it advisable, from imposing regulations as to courses of study, qualification of teachers, etc.

In the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan, Catholic schools supported by provincial funds form a regular part of the provincial systems. These schools are obliged to submit to the general educational regulations as regards qualifications of teachers, courses of study, text-books, etc. Catholic readers,

¹²⁴Section 5, R.S.S., 1909, c. 102, Consolidated School Acts, p. 113, Regina, 1919.

however, may be used and formal religious instruction may be given during the last half hour of the school day. The existence of Catholic schools and their continued and permanent recognition as a part of the educational system are safeguarded both by the provincial and Federal constitutions so that the abolition of Catholic schools in Alberta and Saskatchewan is quite beyond the sphere of the provincial and even the Federal authorities. Private Catholic schools are also permitted to exist under the present provincial educational system, although subjected to inspection. The existence of this type of Catholic school is, however, not safeguarded by the constitution, and it is quite within the power of the provincial legislatures either to subject them to additional regulations or to abolish them altogether. The status of Catholic schools in the provinces, while not ideal, as that represented by the Quebec system where Catholic schools are by the state placed under the direct control of the ecclesiastical authorities, nevertheless is fairly satisfactory. And, as there is nothing either in the provincial or the Federal constitution to prevent the recognition of Catholic rights to a more extended control over Catholic schools within the provinces, Catholics may hopefully strive for the attainment of that desired end.

Although no provision is made in British Columbia for the recognition of Catholic schools as a part of the provincial system, yet it would seem that even under present legislation it is quite within the power of the authorities to make some concessions to Catholic schools as in Nova Scotia, where, notwithstanding the fact that denominational schools are not recognized by the school law of the province, yet they are recognized by custom so that "the only two Roman Catholic Colleges of the province and most of the convents are affiliated with the public school system."¹³⁵ In none of the provinces treated of is there anything of a constitutional nature to prevent the legislatures from extending to Catholics the exercise of full control of Catholic education, while at the same time admitting them to the participation in their proportionate share of the district or provincial educational funds.

¹³⁵Hopkins, J. Castell, Canada—An Encyclopedia, Article by Dr. A. H. McKay, p. 221.

THE LIMITATIONS OF THE EDUCATIONAL THEORY
OF JOHN LOCKE ESPECIALLY FOR THE
CHRISTIAN TEACHER*

SUMMARY

(Continued)

These passages from the *Conduct* seem more favorable to the doctrine of Formal Discipline than, perhaps, any other utterances of Locke. Yet it will be observed that what Locke hopes from the study of mathematics is not a mental power universally applicable to any and every situation, but rather the method, *the way of reasoning*, and "the habit of reasoning closely and in train." He declares that the fault which "stops or misleads men in their knowledge" is "a custom of taking up with principles that are not self-evident and very often not so much as true. . . . The reason why they do not make use of better and surer principles, is because they cannot. . . . Few men are from their youth accustomed to strict reasoning, and to trace the dependence of any truth in a long line of consequences to its remote principles, and to observe its connections. . . . Nay, the most of men are so wholly strangers to this, that they do not so much as perceive the want of it."²⁴⁶ Now, he argues, the study of mathematics will, in the first place, awaken a man to his own deficiencies, and "would take off that presumption that most men have of themselves in this part." "Secondly, the study of mathematics would show them the necessity there is, in reasoning, to separate all the distinct ideas, and see the habitudes that all those concerned in the present enquiry have to one another." And, he adds, "There is another no less useful habit to be got by an application to mathematical demonstrations, and that is, of using the mind to a long train of consequence."²⁴⁷

*A dissertation submitted to the Catholic Sisters College of the Catholic University of America in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

²⁴⁶*Conduct*, Sec. 7.

²⁴⁷*Ibid.*

Locke wishes to teach the art of reasoning. He does not, however, believe that this art can be taught adequately by the study of logic, but that it must be inculcated by practice. He regards mathematics as the easiest and the most obvious kind of reasoning,²⁴⁸ and that this subject is, therefore, best suited for an object-lesson in dialectics. That he does not regard the training in mathematics as an all sufficient and universal discipline is made plain in his own words: "In *ways* of reasoning which men have not been used to, he that will observe the conclusions they take up must be satisfied they are not at all rational."²⁴⁹ "The mistake is, that he that is found reasonable in one thing is concluded to be so in all."²⁵⁰ "It is true that he that reasons well in any one thing, has a mind naturally capable of reasoning well in others, and to the same degree of strength and clearness, and possibly much greater, had his understanding been so employed. But it is as true that he, who can reason well today about one sort of matters, cannot at all reason today about others, though perhaps a year hence he may."²⁵¹ Hence, he desires that the young pupil be introduced into many lines of study, "to open the door, that he may look in, and as it were begin an acquaintance," and thus "to give him some little taste of what his own industry must perfect."²⁵²

In the *Conduct* Locke enlarges upon this idea, making quite clear that he seeks *specific* disciplines. He says, "The end and use of a little insight in those parts of knowledge, which are not a man's proper business, is to accustom our minds to all sorts of ideas and the proper ways of examining their habitudes and relations. This gives the mind a freedom and the exercising the understanding in the several ways of enquiry and reasoning,

²⁴⁸Cf. *Thoughts*, Sec. 180.

²⁴⁹*Conduct*, Sec. 6.

²⁵⁰*Ibid.*

²⁵¹*Ibid.*

²⁵²Cf. *Thoughts*, Sec. 94.

which the most skilful have made use of, teaches the mind sagacity and wariness, a suppleness to apply itself more closely and dexterously to the bents and turns of the matter in all its researches. Besides, the universal taste of all sciences, with an indifferency before the mind is possessed with any one particular and grown into love and admiration of what is made its darling, will prevent another evil very commonly observed in those who have from the beginning been seasoned only by one part of knowledge. Let a man be given up to the contemplation of one sort of knowledge and that will become everything. The mind will take such a tincture from a familiarity with that object, that everything else, how remote soever, will be brought under the same view. . . . It is no small consequence to keep the mind from such a possession which I think is best done by giving it a fair and equal view of the whole intellectual world, wherein it may see the order, rank, and beauty of the whole, and give a just allowance to the distinct province of the several sciences in due order and usefulness of each of them. . . . If men are for a long time accustomed only to one sort of method of thoughts, their minds grow stiff in it, and do not readily turn to another . . . ”²⁵³

That Locke believes a many-sided scholarship necessary to a complete development of the reasoning power is likewise implied in this statement: “It will be objected, that to manage the understanding as I propose, would require every man to be a scholar, and to be furnished with all the materials of knowledge, and exercised in *all the ways* of reasoning. To which I answer that it is a shame for those that have time and the means to attain knowledge, to want any helps or assistance for the improvement of their understandings that are to be got, and to such I would be thought here chiefly to speak.”²⁵⁴ Had he held to the doctrine of Formal Discipline, he

²⁵³Sec. 19. ²⁵⁴Ibid. Sec. 7.

would hardly have missed the opportunity here given him to assert the adequacy of the training given by one or two subjects. With Locke the learning process is neither sufficient in itself nor more important than the thing learned. He insists on content: Our reason "perfectly fails us where our ideas fail. . . . Wherever we have no ideas, our reasoning stops, and we are at an end of our reckoning."²⁵⁵

One more proof that Locke was not a believer in the doctrine of Formal Discipline is found in the passage of the *Thoughts* cited above (Chapter V), in which he refers to the futility of exercising the memory for the purpose of general development. "The learning of pages of Latin by heart," he adds by way of illustration, "no more fits the memory for retention of anything else, than the grav-ing of one sentence in lead makes it more capable of re-taining any other characters."²⁵⁶ We have shown in Chapter V, that here Locke admits less transfer of practice effect than the results of careful observation and experiment have proven to exist.

Lastly nowhere do we find Locke disposed to retain in the curriculum any subject that has no longer any intrinsic value for the student. Latin, grammar, and rhetoric, are set aside whenever it becomes evident that the pupil will not need them directly, and no heed is given to whatever disciplinary value they possess.²⁵⁷ Whatever is "useful or necessary for a young gentleman" is the constantly repeated criterion of educational values. Thus we read: "Since it cannot be hoped he should have time and strength to learn all things, most pains should be taken about that which is most necessary; and that principally looked after which will be of most and frequentest use to him in the world."²⁵⁸ "Can there be anything

²⁵⁵*Essay*, Bk. IV., c. 179.

²⁵⁶*Thoughts*, Sec. 176.

²⁵⁷*Cf. Thoughts*, Secs. 164, 165.

²⁵⁸*Ibid.* Sec. 94.

more ridiculous than that a father should waste his own money and his son's time in setting him to learn the Roman language, when at the same time he designs him for a trade?"²⁵⁹ Again, "I think the first six books of Euclid enough to be taught. For I am in some doubt, whether more to a man of business be necessary or useful."²⁶⁰

The thought that a subject of study has disciplinary value, because it is hard or difficult, does not appeal to Locke: "Truths," he says, "are not the better nor the worse for their obviousness or difficulty, but their value is to be measured by their usefulness and tendency."²⁶¹

SUMMARY

We conclude, therefore, that though Locke was a Disciplinarian, his theory, taken either in its totality or in any of its parts, does not warrant our classifying him as a *formal* disciplinarian. His discipline is *specific*. We base our findings, (1) on his rejection of the theory of universal and undiminished transfer of training effect; (2) on his repudiation of the "faculty" psychology of Aristotle; (3) on his rejection of the idea that what is hard or difficult has special disciplinary value; (4) on his emphasis upon the useful content of the subject of study; (5) on his insistence upon a curriculum embracing a wide range of subjects; and (6) on his recognition of the truth that the ability to reason upon any subject demands specific knowledge of the facts and of the specific technique involved.

Though Locke's applications of it are not always beyond criticism, it is, nevertheless, true that his views on education foreshadowed the theory of specific discipline, which was not definitely formulated until the nineteenth century.

(To be continued)

²⁵⁹Ibid. Sec. 164.

²⁶⁰Ibid. Sec. 181.

²⁶¹Conduct, Sec. 25.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES

APPROVAL OF COMMERCIAL STUDIES IN THE AFFILIATED HIGH SCHOOLS

As stated in the CATHOLIC EDUCATIONAL REVIEW of April last, the spirit of the process of affiliation is effected and protected by the plasticity of the system itself. By this factor affiliation is able to adjust the work of Catholic education as carried on in our affiliated high schools and academies to the needs of the day while at the same time providing for that larger life, which is the product of a complete education.

One of the growing demands of our complex American life is that our high schools shall provide not only for the small percentage who enter higher institutions of learning but especially for that greater number, whose formal education will cease at the end of the high-school period. This demand has gained in strength and rightly so. The boys and girls, who do not desire to enter the ranks of those, whose education requires a college or technical training, must be given at least that which will fit them to render a worthy service to the community; to be practical men and women. To meet this demand our Catholic high schools have in many instances introduced courses, which will aid their graduates in fulfilling the duties of secretarial positions and other fields of economic life. This is equally true of our colleges and universities. In these latter institutions the commerce group of studies is being attended by an ever-increasing number of students. Some of these are preparing to enter directly the large corporate concerns of our country, for these excellent courses of an advanced type along commercial lines have been designed and are helping to send forth professionally trained men, who are at the same time not merely narrow technicians but men of some academic culture. There are likewise in this department of our universities other students, who are planning and preparing for the teaching of commercial studies in our high schools and colleges. Here at the Catholic University the increase of this latter type has indeed been notable. The same is true in most of our other leading colleges and universities.

In fact the growth along both these lines has been phenomenal during the last few years.

To systematize this phase of high-school work and adjust it to the approved courses which are followed in our affiliated high schools has been under consideration by the Committee on Affiliation for some time. As a result of their work and of that of the high schools themselves, together with the suggestions, valuable and practical, offered by those in charge of the commerce courses here at the University, the following plan has been adopted and arrangements are now so complete that the students of our affiliated high schools may receive credit for these commercial studies on practically the same basis as for the other subjects as outlined in the syllabus for affiliation.

The aim of these courses in commercial work is primarily to help the students who will not go beyond the high school. By means of them such students are offered a practical training, which, in our highly specialized office work of the present day, is an essential requisite. The man in the business world of today, however, needs more than the tool subjects of his craft. He cannot go very far in any phase of commercial pursuits without realizing that more than a mastery of the art of stenography and typewriting is needed for office work of the successful sort. What is true of these two subjects is equally true of all others of this type. They alone are insufficient and must be correlated with those studies that will develop the boy or girl into a liberally educated youth. The narrow specialist is as much out of place in the ranks of those who succeed in business as he is among the scientists and classicists. That the primary aim of these newly approved subjects can be realized, it is necessary that they be followed in connection with those already accepted as necessary for all graduates of our affiliated high schools. By this procedure the students who do not intend to go beyond the high school will be induced to remain at school until they have gained credits sufficient for securing a general certificate. Moreover, this arrangement tends to raise the standard of the work done in the commercial department and to offset the too well recognized dangers resulting from so-called short courses in

business methods as carried on in what for a better name might be called drilleries.

The commercial subjects offered as approved are as follows: Bookkeeping, Commercial Geography, Economics, and Commercial Arithmetic. The work done in the classes of Stenography and Typewriting will be arranged for later. The outlines of the subjects approved will be forwarded to any affiliated high school upon application to the secretary of the Committee on Affiliation. They will be printed in the next issue of the syllabus. Examinations in these subjects may be taken at the end of this scholastic year. Each of the above-mentioned subjects will be counted as a unit toward the general certificate issued to students of the affiliated high schools, who have fulfilled all the requirements as stated on pages 2, 4, and 34 of the syllabus. All students are required to present for graduation a minimum of fifteen units of which two must be in Religion, except for non-Catholic students, who may offer as a substitute two units in some approved subject other than music. This last is a free elective. The other required units are: Three in English, two in Mathematics, two in some other language (Classical or Modern), one in Natural Science, and the prescribed year in History. The remaining four units are elective. It is to be noted, however, that one of the electives must be so chosen that the pupil will offer three units of some subject other than English, of those enumerated above. Commercial Arithmetic may be offered as the third unit in Mathematics by those students who take a strictly commercial course.

The Committee on Affiliation, realizing the needs of our pupils who do not intend to go further than the high school, have, for the best interests of these pupils and their future, decided that a General Certificate will be issued to a pupil, in the Commercial Course, who has attended an affiliated high school for four years. Pupils in the other courses of the high school are preparing to enter higher institutions of learning, either a college or normal school, and are permitted to complete the high-school period in three years if they have successfully passed examinations in the required subjects and the electives necessary to make up the fifteen units, which must

be presented for graduation. By this procedure it is possible for a commercial student to acquire a sound practical training as well as a good cultural background for office work or duties of a similar nature. It also provides that should such a pupil desire to enter as a candidate for an A. B. degree in the Commerce Group as offered here at the University and other institutions of a like type, he will have satisfied the necessary entrance requirements. The following is therefore suggested as an opportune arrangement for the minimum work of four years for those who desire to follow all the approved commercial subjects. It is to be understood that the stronger pupils will endeavor to present more than the minimum fifteen units and this can be easily done by taking five subjects each year.

In terms of units the four years' work could be: Religion, 2 units; English, 3 units; Mathematics, 3 units; a Natural Science, 1 unit; the prescribed year of History, 1 unit; Commercial Geography, 1 unit; Economics, 1 unit; Bookkeeping, 1 unit; and another language, 2 units.

In yearly arrangement it might be:

Religion I	Another Language I	One Elective
English I	Mathematics II	Religion IV
Com. Geography	Economics	Natural Science
Mathematics I	Religion III	Bookkeeping
History I	English III	Two Electives
Religion II	Another Language II	
English II	Com. Arithmetic	

LEO L. McVAY,

Secretary, Committee on Affiliation.

A YEAR OF THE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH COMMITTEE

The Educational Research Committee of the Commonwealth Fund held its first meeting approximately a year ago. Its members believe that the educational public will be interested in a brief report of the transactions of the committee and of the educational research now going forward for which it stands sponsor.

In the summer of 1920 the Commonwealth Fund, at the suggestion of Prof. Max Farrand, of Yale University, then the fund's general director, appropriated \$100,000 for the purpose of encouraging educational research. It was under-

stood that, if satisfactory results were obtained from the expenditure of this amount during a single year, similar appropriations would be made annually for a period of five years. The policies to govern the expenditure of the appropriation were left to later determination.

The general director organized a conference of persons experienced in conducting or directing educational research, which met for three days in October, 1920, and recommended a plan of procedure to the directors of the Commonwealth Fund. The plan proposed a departure from the current practice of philanthropic foundations in the conduct of educational research. Instead of setting up a more or less permanent agency with an expert personnel, it was recommended that the Commonwealth Fund subsidize individual investigators of proved capacity or of great promise to undertake limited researches. The conference further indicated certain large fields in each of which numerous painstaking scientific studies are needed. These are: School revenues; the evaluation of school subjects and the determination of standards of accomplishment in them; reorganization of the administrative units of the public educational system; the establishment of standards and methods of supervision. The conference also recommended that the Commonwealth Fund appoint a committee to consider and recommend projects for research and to assume executive responsibility for supervising the carrying on of such researches as might be subsidized by the fund.

The directors of the Commonwealth Fund accepted the conference's recommendations and appointed as the Educational Research Committee, Leonard P. Ayres, Samuel P. Capen, Lotus D. Coffman, Ellwood P. Cubberley, Charles H. Judd, Paul Monroe, and Frank E. Spaulding. Prof. Max Farrand, the general director of the fund, was designated to act as chairman. Since the organization of the committee, Prof. Spaulding has been obliged to resign and President James R. Angell has been appointed in his stead. During Prof. Monroe's absence in the Orient, his place has been taken by Prof. E. L. Thorndike. Prof. Farrand has resigned as general director of the Commonwealth Fund but remains as chairman of the Educational Research Committee.

The committee's general policy has followed closely the lines of the recommendations made by the conference above referred to. During the year in which it has been in existence, a considerable number of requests for subventions have been presented to it. These have been exceedingly varied. Some of them have come from persons of no reputation as investigators and have been very vaguely defined. Some have been presented by distinguished scientists but called for the support of investigations which could hardly be classified as educational research. Certain requests have been made for the subsidization of special departments or of individuals in colleges or universities, without specification of the research projects to be supported by the subsidy. Other requests submitted by persons of known competence have sought subventions for projects carefully defined and budgeted. After a preliminary review of these heterogeneous askings, the committee came to several conclusions which have since met with the approval of the Commonwealth Fund. In the first place, it decided to recommend no subventions to departments or individual workers in institutions for the carrying on of the regular research activities of such departments or individuals. Secondly, it determined to recommend the support of only those projects which were carefully defined both as to objectives and as to methods, and which were accompanied by an itemized estimate of the cost of the undertaking. Thirdly, it decided for the present to recommend no subsidy for a longer period than one year. Within that time the investigation must either be terminated or a substantial report of progress submitted. Fourthly, the committee recommended that, wherever possible, the Commonwealth Fund should have its financial dealings with the institution or organized agency to which the investigator is attached, rather than with the individual.

Since this last-mentioned policy of the committee has aroused considerable interest in various quarters, the form of contract which the committee has devised is here quoted:

The institution will accept grants for educational researches from the Commonwealth Fund and will be responsible for their disbursement under the following agreements:

1. Salaries of officers who are relieved of regular duties to engage in researches are to be charged against the research grants at the rate of the salaries paid by the institution to such officers for regular teaching and administration, except in cases where explicit exceptions are arranged in advance.

2. The institution will disburse the grants under the following arrangements: On acceptance of the grant by the institution, the Commonwealth Fund shall deposit with the business officer of the institution a sum suitable to launch the investigation and determined on the basis of the size of the grant; in the case of large grants this sum will amount in general to 20 or 30 per cent of the grant. When the initial sum is approaching exhaustion the business officer of the institution shall request a second deposit and shall render, as soon as possible, a full account of expenditures of the first deposit. In this manner there shall be successive deposits and successive accountings of the grant until the total amount has been used.

In disbursing the funds the institution will assume administrative responsibility for all payments of salaries. It will approve all appointments of assistants. It will make payments on the order of the investigator for supplies and equipment, and traveling expenses, and will render accounts on the latter items, showing the approval of the investigator.

At the termination of the grant it is understood that any unexpended balance shall revert to the Commonwealth Fund, that final disposition of such supplies and equipment as are at hand is subject to the order of the Commonwealth Fund. If at the time of settlement property of any kind is left at the institution, it is understood that it becomes permanently a gift to the institution.

If the grant is made with specifications as to the amounts which are to be used for salaries, traveling expenses, and supplies, the institution will limit all expenditures to the classes of items specified and will allow transfers from one class to another only on explicit permission of the administrative authorities of the institution, but it is understood that readjustments within a single class of expenditures may depart from the original terms of the budget.

3. The person responsible for the investigation will be required to file a report on the investigation both with the administrative officers of the institution and with the directors of the Commonwealth Fund at stated intervals.

It will be noted that the Commonwealth Fund does not propose to pay a bonus to persons who undertake educational research at its expense. The salaries paid investigators are to be the same as the salaries they would receive from the agen-

cies which employ them. The Commonwealth Fund merely makes it possible for an investigator to carry on particular studies in which he is especially interested, and if necessary to be temporarily relieved of his regular institutional duties without pecuniary loss.

The Educational Research Committee has held three regular meetings. Two of these were devoted to the assignment among the most promising projects of the appropriation made for the academic year 1920-21. At the third meeting, held in October, 1921, a portion of the appropriation for the academic year 1921-22 was assigned. A brief account of the projects which have been supported may be of interest. It will be noted that these all fall within the first three of the major fields of study indicated in the initial report of the conference.

Educational Finance

The Commonwealth Fund has joined with three other educational foundations in appropriating to the American Council on Education a sum sufficient to carry forward a comprehensive investigation of educational finance in the United States. The program for public education laid down in legislative enactments and state constitutions will be examined to determine to what extent communities are already meeting the public desires. Effort will be made to investigate the cost of the program designated by the public. The possibility of effecting economies will be studied. The relation of educational expenditures to expenditures for other governmental purposes will be worked out. Intensive studies will be made in individual states that may be regarded as typical, and the most important facts covering the country as a whole will be assembled and collated. The American Council on Education has appointed a special commission to take charge of this investigation.

Measures and Standards of Achievement in School Subjects

An appropriation has also been granted to Columbia University for the preparation, under the direction of Prof. George D. Strayer, of an initial report on city school budgets.

Appropriations have been made to Columbia University for

the conduct of two investigations under the direction of Prof. E. L. Thorndike. The first investigation deals with the possible reorganization of the teaching material in algebra and the methods of presenting that subject. What is known about the psychology of algebra is to be collected, gaps in that knowledge are to be noted and filled by appropriate investigations so far as possible, especially such as are important in possible changes in curricula and methods.

The second investigation relates to vocational guidance. It is designed to prepare standard tests of ability to continue school work, of ability to learn to do clerical work, and of ability in the mechanical trades and factory work. These tests are to be for use with boys and girls of approximately fifteen or sixteen years of age. It is expected that they will be so formulated as not to require the services of a psychologist to give them.

Two appropriations have been made to the University of Chicago, one for the use of Prof. Judd and assistants in conducting a laboratory study of reading, and the other to Prof. Morrison for devising a series of tests designed to measure the progress of pupils in French under ordinary high-school instruction. In the investigation of reading, laboratory methods are used which teachers cannot employ. The movements of the eyes of adults and children are photographed under different conditions while they are reading various kinds of passages. It is expected that in this way the processes involved in good and bad reading and in mature and immature reading may be determined. Once the characteristics of various kinds of readings are ascertained it is possible to turn over to teachers many useful suggestions about the handling of pupils.

The French investigation is designed to throw light upon the effectiveness of grammatical as compared with non-grammatical methods in learning to read the foreign language; the pupil's command of grammatical usage in functional form compared with his knowledge of grammatical principles abstractly stated; and the relation between the ability to get the meaning of a series of French words stated apart from any context and the ability to react to the meaning of the same words when they are included in a piece of discourse.

An appropriation was made to be spent by the chairman of the Educational Research Committee on a preliminary conference on the social studies. The conference outlined the problems in the reorganization of teaching material in the social studies, and on the basis of its report the committee has recommended further appropriations for a historical review of the social studies and an evaluation of current experiments in new methods of presenting those subjects.

An appropriation has been made to the Board of Education of Winnetka, Ill., for the conduct of a study under the direction of Superintendent Carleton W. Washburne of periodical and reference literature to determine the commonly known and referred to historical and geographical material, with a view to the possible reorganization of the school material for teaching these subjects.

A grant has been made to Leland Stanford Junior University for a study, under the direction of Prof. L. M. Terman, of gifted children in California. At present such children remain unidentified and submerged in the school's masses. The usual curriculum methods leave their intellectual and volitional resources largely undeveloped, sometimes possibly perverted. It may be more important to discover and to give appropriate educational opportunity to a single gifted child than to prevent the birth of a thousand feeble-minded. The investigation proposes to secure certain basic facts with reference to approximately 1,000 school children of exceptionally superior intellectual ability and to follow up the records and achievements of those pupils over a period of years.

A subsidy has been granted to the New York Association of Consulting Psychologists for a study partly similar in its objects to that of Prof. Terman's. It is proposed to give intensive psychological examinations to students in a group of public schools in New York in order to determine the ability of children as they enter school, classify them as to ability and follow them up by re-examinations and through the services of a home worker, and thus to lay the basis of possible modifications of courses of study for the benefit of intellectually superior children, and that the less able children may be given better opportunities for development.

*Reorganization of the Administrative Units of the
Public Educational System*

The Fund has made a grant to the University of Minnesota to be under the direction of Prof. L. V. Koos in studying and critically evaluating the present status of the junior college movement. There are now upwards of 300 of these institutions, and they are multiplying rapidly. It is the purpose of the study to show their relations to secondary education, to the prevailing four-year college of liberal arts, and to professional education. Such a study, it is believed, should have large influence in determining the trend of future efforts toward educational reorganization at the level of the lower years of the college course.

The Educational Research Committee believes that there should be many more appeals for subventions than have thus far come to it and that requests should be made by a much wider range of institutions. Indeed the conditions of the grant and the policy of the committee are so flexible that any first-class project which can be clearly defined and budgeted is likely to receive favorable consideration. The committee meets three times a year, in the fall, in the early spring and in the early summer. The next meeting will be held March 4, 1922. Projects to receive consideration must be in the hands of the undersigned at least two weeks before the meeting of the committee.

SAMUEL P. CAPEN.

REPORT OF CONFERENCE OF CATHOLIC CHARITIES

The Report of the Seventh National Conference of Catholic Charities, which came out the first week in January, gives a complete and illuminating review of the expansion and development of Catholic social and charitable activities in the United States up to date. It is a symposium of the best Catholic experience on the problems of current interest in welfare work, and in this capacity serves as a useful source of information and inspiration to all individuals and organizations engaged in welfare work.

Every form of Catholic work is treated—work with families; with dependent, delinquent or problem children; community, recreation and health work, etc. The many Catholic

organizations that are taking up new problems in charity work will find valuable suggestions in the report.

The following problems are given special emphasis: Finding of homes for dependent children, Catholic institutions for the feeble-minded, treatment of the problem child, the social hygiene movement, measures to reduce the high death rate in infancy, social service in Catholic hospitals, case work in rural communities, treatment and prevention of delinquency, methods of recruiting and training volunteer workers, girls' clubs, sex education in the home, etc. A splendid outline of case work is a valuable feature in the report.

Vital social questions bearing on present economic situations, as trade-union practices, women's minimum wage, means of remedying or alleviating the unemployment problem, compensation for unemployment, are competently dealt with by men of profound research in these lines. The proper adjustment of the above situations are imperative in the prevention of poverty. Genuine social work aims to prevent as well as to relieve.

Among those contributing valuable papers and discussions to the report are Doctors Kerby, Ryan, Cooper, and Moore, of the Catholic University, Washington, D. C.; Judge Hurley, of Chicago; Judge Wade, of Iowa City; Fred Kenkel, Director of the Central Bureau of St. Louis; Mr. James Fitzgerald, of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul of Detroit; Mr. Thomas Farrell, President of the Catholic Club of New York City; Mr. Edwin J. Cooley, Chief Probation Officer of the Magistrate's Court, New York City; Rev. Moses E. Kiley, Director of Catholic Charities, Chicago; Miss Mary C. Tinney, Department of Public Welfare, New York City; Mrs. John W. Trainor and Mrs. George V. McIntyre, of Chicago; Judge Sheridan, of the Juvenile Court, Milwaukee; Rev. Frederick Siedenburger, S.J., of Chicago.

The Report of the Proceedings of the Second Meeting of the Religious engaged in Social and Charitable Work is a valuable addition to existing instructive literature on social and charitable work and will be of great practical help to all Catholic religious institutions and communities in carrying on their work.

The points of special interest treated in the report are: (1) After care of children discharged from institutions; (2) vocational and secondary education for institutional children; (3) treatment of defective children; (4) recreational activities in institutions; (5) girls' homes and clubs; (6) the moral development of the child.

Seventy per cent of the Social Welfare work in the United States is being done now by our Catholic Sisterhoods. A Committee of Standards for Child-caring Institutions is working on standards to be ready for the next conference.

All communications in regard to the conference and purchase of the report should be addressed to the Secretary, 324 Indiana Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C.

All Catholics are urged to aid in the work of the conference by taking out membership. General membership fee is \$3; sustaining membership fee is \$10. A contribution of \$1 entitles all members to the *Catholic Charities Review* which is published monthly at the Catholic University. The *Review* is the only Catholic magazine devoted exclusively to social and charitable work.

REVIEWS AND NOTICES

The Word of God: A series of short meditations on the Sunday Gospels published in Rome by "The Society of Saint Jerome for the Diffusion of the Gospel." By Monsignor Francis Borgongini-Duca. Translated by the Rev. Francis J. Spellman. Macmillan, 1921.

The origin of this interesting volume indicates clearly that it is intended to furnish appropriate subjects for pious reading or meditation for the devout laity as well as sermon points for the preacher. The preface of the volume informs us that "these explanations of the Holy Gospels were first edited in weekly pamphlets which were published in Rome by the 'Society of Saint Jerome for the Diffusion of the Gospel.'" They appeared from the first Sunday of Lent, 1919, until Quinquagesima Sunday, 1920. They were then put forth in book form, under the title of "The Word of God."

The series thus published proved exceedingly popular in Italy, and from all reports their English translation is finding a similar welcome, for they are popular in the best sense of that word. First of all they are recommended by their brevity, directness, unction, and clarity of style. Then, too, within the compass of three or four pages we find the full text of the Gospel of the day—a great convenience in itself—together with only such explanatory comment as may, perhaps, be required to elucidate thoroughly the meaning of the text, while the remaining treatment has to do with moral or dogmatic lessons based on the Gospel. The author makes this treatment attractive by a varied selection of illustrative material drawn from the Sacred Scriptures, particularly the Old Testament and the Epistle of the Sunday, from the liturgy, the Fathers and the lives of the Saints. The small volume of two hundred pages is thus made to cover most of the Sundays of the year, occasionally the Gospel of a proximate feast-day or of a ferial being substituted for the Gospel of the Sunday. It was a happy thought indeed to vary the Gospel from time to time, particularly in the case of the Gospel of the Prodigal Son, which is perhaps the most pathetic of all the parables and which is assigned to Saturday of the second week in Lent, with the result that only a few of the faithful hear it either

read from the pulpit or commented upon in a Sunday sermon.

Moreover, small as is the volume, the author makes room for brief prefaces to certain of the sermons or meditations, which show forth the mind of the Church as expressed in the prayers and ceremonies of the Liturgy. For instance, under the heading of the First Sunday of Advent, we read the following concise statement; "During the season of Advent the Church endeavors to prepare her children for the proper observance of the Feast of the Nativity. The penitential character of this time which marks the beginning of the liturgical year is indicated by the purple color of the sacred vestments."

Another pleasant feature of the book is the absence in it of trite or commonplace illustrations, and so each succeeding meditation is attractively fresh and inspiring. The piety of the author makes his brief comment glow with fervor—*pectus facit disertum*. Although a professor of theology, his discourses do not smell of the schools; no dreary discussions or bewildering distinctions suited only to the lecture hall. Running through the volume like a golden thread is the author's sincerity; we feel as we read that the author has lived what he writes—that he is giving us personal experiences and not chamber studies.

More than a word of praise should be said of the excellent translation into English. Doctor Spellman has translated for us more than words; he has caught and interpreted the spirit of the gifted author.

J. P. C.

A Book of Verse from Langland to Kipling. Compiled by J. C. Smith. Oxford: At the Clarendon Press.

The gathering together of poems and verses from the poetic literature of our language has been done so often and so well that we wonder if there is need of a new anthology. With this thought we opened this little book. Before coming to its close we realized that it fills a place so far unoccupied and supplies a demand that the past makers of anthologies have not considered. For the temper of the age is to a large measure subjective, and for this reason our chief anthologies

have been concerned with the songs and the lyrics of the language. This book is made up of non-lyrical poems which heretofore could not be found in a single handy volume. It is not, therefore, a rival of the *Golden Treasury* or other recognized compilations, but rather a supplement to them. The preface is a brief but very satisfactory history of English poetry from the beginning. We might remind Mr. Smith that the Christian influence upon the pre-Norman poetry is due not so much to the missionaries that St. Augustine brought to England from Rome, but to the missionaries that St. Aiden brought from Ireland. The Roman monks founded schools and monasteries but left no lasting literature. It was the great schools of Jarrow and Whitby founded by the Irish monks that gave to Anglo-Saxon letters the enduring names of Bede, Caedmon, and Cynewulf. We may also add that American and Irish readers may note the absence of poems that are found in the American and Irish contribution to English poetry. It is a pleasure to see Thompson's *Hound of Heaven*, and it is a satisfaction for the Catholic reader to find in the preface a reverent understanding of the principles and ideals of Catholicism. With Palgrave's *Golden Treasury* and Kilmer's *Dreams and Images* we can recommend this book for our Catholic high schools and colleges. With a knowledge of the poetry of these three books our Catholic students will leave school not ill grounded in English poetry.

JAMES M. HAYES.

Seventeenth Annual Report of the Parish Schools of the Diocese of Pittsburgh, 1920-1921.

The reports of the diocesan superintendents invariably show gains and increases in the Catholic educational system. The Pittsburgh report is not exceptional in this respect, for it records a general expansion in schools, teachers, and an increase in attendance throughout the system. A very noteworthy increase, however, which few other reports record, is that of the pupils in the higher grades of the elementary schools and in the high schools. All three upper grammar grades increased in registration, and the percentage of mortality from sixth to seventh and from seventh to eighth de-

creased as compared with last year. Of those about to leave the eighth grade in June 79 per cent applied for admission to various Catholic and public high schools. This is undoubtedly a remarkable advance over conditions a few years ago, when a struggle was required to hold the registration up to a respectable figure throughout the grammar grades. In view of the labor and business depression in Pittsburgh it is a very gratifying sign of progress. The superintendent believes that "under normal conditions at least 80 per cent of our eighth-grade graduates would have embraced the opportunity of a real Catholic high-school training. In fact," he says, "there is not a Catholic college in the diocese offering a preparatory high-school course, nor is there a parish high school conducting a four years' course, that have not been compelled by lack of accommodations to turn away scores of boys and girls who last year completed our elementary parish school training. The figures embodied in these observations are not the result of guesswork. They were carefully compiled from answers to a query addressed to all the grade schools of the diocese. They tell their own story—Catholic parents are not only eager to provide higher education for their children, but they desire that that training be continued under Catholic discipline."

Not only of diocesan but general interest is the superintendent's report on teacher training. It may be summed up in his statement that at the present time practically every teaching Sister in the diocese is pursuing either regular or extension courses with a view of obtaining a normal diploma or a college degree. "The work has been inaugurated systematically, and the results are being reported to and tabulated by the Secretary of the Diocesan Teachers Examining Board." While all the details of the plan are not reported, they being in all probability well known locally, some recommendations are made to the pastors for their practical cooperation with the authorities in providing better facilities for study in the convents. These will be suggestive especially to other diocesan superintendents interested in the same problem. The actuating principle behind the Pittsburgh plan is that "a teaching staff prepared to meet any fair requirement of certification is our best protection."

PATRICK J. McCORMICK.